

JAN 28 1948

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

PERIODICAL ROOM
GENERAL LIBRARY

GENERAL ISSUE

- A Technique for Identifying "Community Pull"
Karl L. Massanari 198
- Some Recent Researches in Helping Teachers to
Understand Children *Louis Rath* 205
- What Is Right in American Education? 212
- The Reading Interests of Children and the School
R. Grann and Hortense D. Lloyd 215
- Intergroup Relations at Cosmopolitan Junior High
Travis H. Taylor 220
- We the Students of Public School 233— *Marion V. Brown* 226
- Education and the Transition *Sidney W. Rice* 233
- Societies Around the World *Irwin T. Sanders* 238
- Intergroup Relations in Arizona *Roy C. Rice* 243
- Editorial, 193 Book Reviews 250

DECEMBER 1947

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

PUBLISHED BY

THE PAYNE EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY FOUNDATION, INCORPORATED

32 WASHINGTON PLACE, NEW YORK 3, N.Y.

Editorial Staff

E. GEORGE PAYNE, *Editor-in-Chief* JOHN C. PAYNE, *Asst. Managing Editor*
DAN W. DODSON, *Managing Editor* JEAN B. BARR, *Business Manager*
HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH, RHEA K. BOARDMAN, FREDERIC M. THRASHER, HERMAN A.
ERNST, STEPHEN G. RICH, I. DAVID SATLOW, STEPHEN J. WRIGHT, *Associate Editors*

Permanent Departments

Significant Developments in Education, E. GEORGE PAYNE, *Editor*
Book Reviews, HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH, *Editor*

THE PAYNE EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY FOUNDATION, INCORPORATED

Board of Trustees

E. GEORGE PAYNE, <i>President</i>	STEPHEN G. RICH
HERMAN A. ERNST, <i>Vice-President</i>	WILLIAM ROSENGARTEN, SR.
HENRY W. MEISSNER, <i>Secretary</i>	I. DAVID SATLOW
HERBERT D. HARPER, <i>Treasurer</i>	W. CLINTON STUART
DAN W. DODSON, <i>Managing Trustee</i>	

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY is published by The Payne Educational Sociology Foundation, Inc., monthly from September to May, inclusive. Publication and business office, Room 52, 32 Washington Place, New York 3, N.Y. Editorial office, Room 41, 32 Washington Place, New York 3, N.Y. The subscription price is \$3.00 per year; foreign rates, Canadian and South American, \$3.25, all others, \$3.40; the price of single copies is 35 cents each. Orders for less than half a year will be charged at the single-copy rate.

Entered as second-class matter September 27, 1934, at the Post Office at New York, N.Y., under the Act of March 3, 1879.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY is indexed in *Educational Index*, *Public Affairs Information Service*, and *Business Education Index*.

The publishers of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY are not responsible for the views held by its contributors.

PRINTED IN U.S.A.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

Vol. 21

December 1947

No. 4

EDITORIAL

I. Within the Family

From a financial point of view THE JOURNAL is having one of its most difficult years. Printing costs have pyramided until they have more than offset the increases in circulation. Nevertheless, THE JOURNAL's usefulness as a medium in presenting the outstanding issues in teacher education is greater than at any time in the past. The popularity enjoyed by the September number, devoted to *Evaluation of Intercultural Education*, is an apt illustration of this fact. Our supply of extra copies is practically exhausted, and comments have come from many sources indicating the high degree of interest with which the material is being met by educators. It is obvious that Dr. Shapiro rendered a distinct service in bringing this material to the fore.

Many interruptions of plans have occurred during the season. We had planned that one number of the fall season would be devoted to *The Next Twenty-five Years in Teacher Training*, and that a second would be a *Study of the Twenty-five Year History of the School of Education of New York University*. Both numbers fell through. In the interim, the editor had made arrangements for the publication of papers which were presented at a

Copyright 1947 by The Payne Educational Sociology Foundation, Inc.

recent conference devoted to *Opening Doors to Learning*. However, the Board of Directors of the organization decided that some parts of the material presented should not be published. Consequently, we have been compelled to devote three numbers to general materials. This is more than we ordinarily plan, but fortunately we have had an unusually large number of articles submitted during the past year.

II. Reconstructing Nazi Wreckage

From a letter written to Dean Emeritus E. George Payne as editor and received this month, it is evident that the total job of reconstruction cannot be accomplished by the Marshall Plan. Dr. Habil Ad. Geck, a contributor to *THE JOURNAL* in the early thirties, writes: "As an anti-Nazi, I had to leave the university career, and after some years of theological study I became a Catholic priest. Now, I am Rector of a hospital in the Rhinelands.

"Nevertheless, my interest in the problems of educational sociology has not diminished. Last week our German Sociological Society—that could not work in the Nazi time—after its reconstruction, founded a group for educational sociology.

"But, as I have been bombed out during the war, also my volumes of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY*—that I had gathered from the first number—have been burnt. So beginning is very difficult."

We would suggest to some reader having a file of back numbers, which he would be willing to donate, that likely it would be put to good use.

III. Postwar Educational Opportunity

The rapidly increasing enrollment in colleges and universities during the postwar era is creating continued problems. According to *The New York Times*, tuition costs have risen some 35 per cent—and still students come seeking knowledge. New York University will enroll some 60,000 students during the academic year.

Obviously, the rise in tuition costs has been countered, to a certain extent, by the rise in income; but Chancellor Chase, in his annual report to the New York University Council, states that approximately 75 per cent of the students are working to pay a part of their costs.

IV. Postwar Educational Opportunity

The State Commission created to study the need for a state university will soon make its report to the New York State Legislature. The findings will provide a basis in fact for the development of a comprehensive program of higher education—which should assist the state in its rise from a lowly position of twenty-second in attendance rank as of 1941—without serious detriment to existing colleges and universities. I represented the Mayor's Committee on Unity in the hearings held by the Commission recently. The major emphasis of the presentations was that there be established "Junior Colleges" or two-year "Community Colleges" to meet the emergency—from there on the suggestions varied from full-scale college campuses with upper-class professional and graduate work to arrangements with existing institutions for the remainder of the work to be done by them. Regardless of all else, it seems almost sure that the state will be asked to pledge its resources to provide educational opportunity for youths who at present cannot afford it in the private schools and colleges.

The other facet of the investigation relates to the alleged discrimination against youths of given minority backgrounds. In the last session of the legislature, the Austin-Mahoney bill to regulate admission practices was withdrawn after the Catholic group in the state took an official position against it. Whether a bill can be drawn that will be satisfactory remains to be seen. The reluctance to support a bill apparently stems more from "how it can be done" than from objections to the purpose of such a measure. Whatever else happens, this study bids fair to be the best survey of inequalities in higher education that has ever been done. Pro-

fessor Floyd Reeves has an exceptionally well-qualified staff and has undertaken an exhaustive study.

V. Human Relations

Beginning with the September session, New York University, in collaboration with the Bureau for Intercultural Education, established a Center for Human Relations. The staff consists primarily of Dr. H. H. Giles, director of the Bureau; Mr. Fred Wale, who came to the Center from the Rosenwald Fund; Professor Alice V. Keliher, of the department of elementary and early childhood education; Professors Ethel Alpenfels and Dan W. Dodson from the department of educational sociology—Professor Alpenfels' work lying in the field of anthropology, and Dr. Dodson's in the field of sociology and community relations; and Professor Theodore Brameld from the department of educational philosophy. In a secondary sense the entire faculty of the School of Education is at the disposal of the Center in consultative and other capacities.

The President's commission on civil rights has just issued its report entitled *To Secure These Rights*. The outstanding features of the statement, in addition to the excellent restatement of the American Ideal, are the proposals relating to the way in which machinery should be developed to implement the findings. Many states have excellent civil-rights laws, but the responsibility for their enforcement is placed upon an already overworked district attorney who is under the pressure of the biases of the community. The procedures indicated in the report are in large measure an endorsement of commissions set up by municipal and state governments and the F.E.P.C., which provided channels through which these problems could flow. One other aspect of the report which deserves commendation is that it is not a plea just for Negro and Jewish interests, but deals rather with the problem of protecting the civil rights of *all* groups.

Maryland is going through a reorganization of her higher educational facilities. Considerable pressure is being brought upon the state to allow Negroes and whites to be trained in the same professional schools. A Supreme Court ruling of a few years ago forced the admission of Negro students into the law school, but separate schools have been maintained in most other professional fields. A significant stride would be made if this breach in institutional lethargy could be made from the top.

VI. Liberalism and the "Cold War"

The "Cold War" with Russia has given the enemies of liberalism, as well as the "Red Baiters," a curtain behind which to hide in their fight. So far, however, the attacks have been fairly well restricted to groups other than the teaching group. This is surprising in light of the teacher strikes of last year. However, if education budgets continue to mount, it would not be surprising to see teaching undergo what the motion-picture industry is receiving now.

DAN W. DODSON

A TECHNIQUE FOR IDENTIFYING "COMMUNITY PULL"

Karl L. Massanari

The problem of determining what area comprises the social and economic community is one that is prerequisite to a wide variety of community studies and programs. The rural and semirural population of the nation could once identify fairly easily the specific and local social cluster to which it belonged; but the sharply defined communities of previous years cannot be taken for granted today. Regular social contacts with the institutions, people, and services of one place are rarer phenomena than was once the case. The familiar pattern of the village center, adequately serving and being served by the people who lived close by, begins to seem a little obsolescent. Such centers serve only to a degree, only in part. One asks, more appropriately, now, "To what extent does a given social center serve the people who live nearby?" Or he asks, "What agencies in the center constitute the greatest pulling force in that direction?"

The concept of the community is, of course, the concept of a geographical area with a center, and with people who, to a significant degree, depend upon and participate in the functions of that center. Those things which are done in the name of the center—from the organization of a school to the establishment of a private business—are dependent upon a fairly clear picture of the degree to which the community "pulls" upon the population. Some formula of measurement, some technique to establish the nature and degree of this "pull" is a special need when the social flux and the ease of transportation make the selection of one's community an easy and selective affair, irrespective of one's actual change of residence.

With this thought the writer undertook to work out a technique for approaching this problem as it arose in connection with a community survey of Mahomet, Illinois, a small, rural com-

munity of approximately 900 inhabitants. The survey was made primarily for other purposes, and this report is confined only to the matter of surveying the extent of the community's central pull.

Determining "Community Pull"

A list of all the people living in the surrounding rural area was compiled. The task at hand was to find how much these people were influenced by the community center, Mahomet, defined in terms of various community activities. These community activities were listed and grouped as follows:

A. *Religious*

1. Membership in the Methodist church
2. Membership in the Baptist church
3. Membership in the Nazarene church

B. *Educational*

1. A member of the family attending high school
2. A member of the family attending grade school
3. A member of the family enrolled in the high-school veteran's classes
4. A member of the family enrolled in the high-school adult classes
5. A member of the family doing 4-H Club work

C. *Professional services*

1. A family served by the veterinarian
2. A family served by the funeral director
3. A family served by the dentist
4. A family served by the doctor

D. *Subscribing to the local weekly paper*

E. *Social*

1. A member of the family belonging to the American Legion
2. A member of the family belonging to the Farm Bureau
3. A member of the family belonging to the Home Bureau

4. A member of the family belonging to the Masonic Lodge
5. A member of the family belonging to the Eastern Star
6. A member of the family belonging to the Rebekah Lodge
7. A member of the family belonging to the Odd Fellows
8. A member of the family belonging to the Junior Woman's Club
9. A member of the family belonging to the Senior Woman's Club

F. Economic

1. Buying drugs
2. Buying feed
3. Buying groceries
4. Buying lumber and building supplies
5. Buying and selling grain
6. Buying gasoline and oil
7. Serviced by the plumber
8. Buying insurance
9. Telephone service
10. Buying cement cesspools
11. Serviced by the garage

It could not be assumed that all these activities exerted equal "community pull"; that is, a person who visited the dentist for an annual checkup would probably not feel as much a part of the community or be drawn as closely to it as one who had a child enrolled in school. Therefore if one is to determine how much "community pull" is exerted on the people or on any one family, it is necessary to know the relative "pull" exerted by each of the community activities. This information is not tangible; it can be secured only from the judgment of the people in that community. The technique in securing this judgment of the people is the primary consideration of this paper. It is impossible, or at least impractical, to get the opinions of all, so a representative jury of twenty persons was selected. Ten of these jurors directly represented the various activities of the community. Particular care was exercised so that no one community activity was over- or under-emphasized. The remaining ten jurors represented people who

were known to be active in community life.¹ Inactive members were not consulted because it was assumed that their judgment was less valuable.

The twenty jurors were all contacted in person and instructed about the purpose of the study. They were handed a form, AN EVALUATION OF "COMMUNITY PULL," the essence of which follows:

AN EVALUATION OF "COMMUNITY PULL"

Name of Juror..... Date.....

Occupation of juror

Affiliations of juror.....

Consider carefully all the various community activities listed below in relation to their comparative amount of "community pull." How much does each activity draw the participant to the community? How much does it make him feel a part of the community? How much does it cause him to associate himself with the community? After reading the entire list as given in Column A, consider each activity separately and tell how much community pull each has by placing a check mark for each activity in the appropriately headed column below.

Column A Community Activity	Relative Amount of Community Pull				
	1. Top one-fifth	2. Next to highest one-fifth	3. Middle one-fifth	4. Next to lowest one-fifth	5. Bottom one-fifth
1. Membership in the Methodist church					
2. Membership in the Baptist church					
3. Membership in the Nazarene church					
4. A member of the family attending high school					
30. Buying insurance					
31. Telephone service					
32. Buying cement cesspools					
33. Serviced by the garage					

¹ This aspect was considered by another phase of the community survey.

Their job was to rate each community activity according to the relative amount of "community pull" it exerted. Five categories were provided as indicated in the form. The response was enthusiastic and in no instance were there any unchecked items.

The results were tabulated and a point value of 50 was arbitrarily assigned to those items checked in the top one-fifth group, 40 to those in the next-to-highest one-fifth group, 30 to the middle one-fifth, 20 to the next-to-lowest one-fifth, and 10 to the bottom one-fifth. This made possible a translation of the jurors' opinions to numerical data.

The judgments of those ten jurors who directly represented the community activities were considered separately from the remaining ten and later combined. The two groups agreed in most instances to a surprising degree. The jurors in both groups rated the schools and churches high. They also agreed on a number of activities which exerted the least "pull." The only significant difference in the two ratings was that the service of the doctor was rated much higher by the group of jurors representing active community members.

Findings

The combined jury opinion on the relative amount of "community pull" of the various community activities follows:

<i>Point Value</i>	<i>Community Activity</i>
47	A member of the family attending grade school
47	A member of the family attending high school
46	Membership in the Methodist church
45	Membership in the Baptist church
41	Membership in the Nazarene church
40	Buying groceries
37	A member of the family doing 4-H Club work
37	Subscribing to the local weekly paper
37	Telephone service

- 36 A family served by the doctor
 - 36 A member of the family belonging to the Junior Woman's Club
 - 36 A member of the family belonging to the Senior Woman's Club
 - 35 Buying and selling grain
 - 34 A member of the family belonging to the Farm Bureau
 - 33 A member of the family belonging to the Home Bureau
 - 33 Buying gasoline and oil
 - 32 Buying feed
 - 31 A member of the family belonging to the Eastern Star
 - 31 A member of the family enrolled in the high-school adult classes
 - 31 Buying lumber and building supplies
 - 30 A member of the family belonging to the Masonic Lodge
 - 30 Buying drugs
 - 30 Serviced by the plumber
 - 29 A family served by the dentist
 - 29 A member of the family belonging to the American Legion
 - 29 A member of the family belonging to the Odd Fellows
 - 29 Serviced by the garage
 - 28 A member of the family belonging to the Rebekahs
 - 28 Buying insurance
 - 25 A family served by the funeral director
 - 25 A member of the family enrolled in the high-school veteran's classes
 - 23 A family served by the veterinarian
 - 21 Buying cesspools
- Average ratings by groups of activities:
- 44 Religious
 - 37.4 Educational
 - 37 Newspaper
 - 31.8 Social
 - 31.5 Economic

The high rating given schools in such a study should challenge

educators to continue relentlessly the task of improving the educational program which is provided for the people in the communities of America.

Using the Data on "Community Pull" in the Survey

Each home in the study was represented by a community activity sheet which indicated the activities in which it participated. The numerical data found above were assigned to the appropriate activities and a "family index of community pull" was thus available by summation. The total was later divided by ten in order to facilitate the use of the index number on the map.

This "family index of community pull" was transferred to a large master map on which each home was represented by a small white circle. The number was recorded in the circle. The overall picture of "community pull" was more easily visualized when a line was drawn from each home to the community center for every ten points in the index number. This made available a map showing where and how far out the influence of the community center extended, and gave some indication about what area comprised the social and economic community.

Karl L. Massanari is an Assistant in the Bureau of Research and Service in the College of Education, University of Illinois.

SOME RECENT RESEARCHES IN HELPING TEACHERS TO UNDERSTAND CHILDREN¹

Louis Rath

Is it possible for teachers to change their habits of working with children so as to improve significantly human relationships in schools? Dr. Prescott has just told us of his faith that this can be done: in support of Dr. Prescott's optimistic outlook I want to share with you the results of some recent researches in this field.²

The series of studies to which I will refer had their beginning in 1943 when Professor Alberta Young of the University of Tennessee began to explore the possibilities of developing some new curriculum materials. The primary object of these new materials would be to help the faculties of teacher-training institutions prepare young people in the understanding of human relationships in classrooms. Professor Young explored practices then current and came to the conclusion that what was needed was a new organization of materials with greater challenge, and which would provide a more intense stimulus for pre-service teachers who want to know more about effective ways of working with children. In her search for vital source materials, Professor Young saw that much of the written materials was either beyond the experience of young prospective teachers or inadequate in its capacity to motivate deeper inquiry.

It was fortunate for Dr. Young that some very significant and useful work had been done by Professor Alice Keliher and her staff, the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association. Dr. Keliher and her colleagues working in the eight-year study carried through a film program which resulted in the production of a large number of excerpts from Hollywood films. Projected on a screen were problems in human relations; situations which were charged emotionally and that encouraged listeners and observers to discuss the human problems

¹ This article was originally an address delivered at a conference conducted by the Caroline Zachry Institute, with the theme *Opening Doors to Learning*.

² Dr. Daniel Prescott had just preceded Dr. Rath as a speaker.

presented and the human reactions displayed in the scenes. This work became the cornerstone upon which Professor Young based her resource unit on human relationships for use in teacher-education institutions.

The primary object of Dr. Young's inquiry was to discover what would happen to the social adjustment of children, to their learning of subject matter, and to the development of skills and thinking. She had to postpone experimentation because of the absence of significant curriculum materials required for the education of teachers. The first job, as she saw it, was the development of curriculum materials; and for the better part of two years she worked on the construction of her resource unit. Professor Young accepted a definition of learning that was formulated by Dollard: the learner is a person who wants something; the learner is a person who notices something; the learner is a person who does something; and the learner is a person who gets something. Dr. Young realized that if teachers were to further learning, they would have to work hard on each of these four elements. She realized, also, that many times there are difficulties in learning, and that a constant emphasis put on these four points alone might indeed result in a failure to learn. Dr. Young worked on the idea that frustration of human needs is a serious block to learning; that conflicts in values, insensitivity to human relations, lack of skill in problem solution, and deeply seated emotional needs were interwoven. It was her belief that all of these should constitute the core for the training of teachers in the area of human relations.

Applying these ideas Dr. Young made an intensive study of the human-relations films. She analyzed them for problems that were involved in them, and for the behavior of the characters. In an attempt to hypothesize some of the emotional needs which were being satisfied or frustrated, Professor Young studied the films to identify some of the social values that seemed to be in conflict. After preparing a written report of each film concerning

these points, Professor Young summarized the analysis so that a reader might see the unity and central ideas of her work. This written summary was followed by recommendations to teachers for further reading, and included references to theory and research, which might illuminate the idea. Each précis also contained a list of suggestions for supplementary activities which, it was hoped, might result in richer experiences for prospective teachers in the area of human relations. When this work was completed it became possible to carry on an experiment to test whether or not teachers would be helped considerably by studying the films in the ways suggested by Professor Young: by doing the readings, participating in some of the suggested activities, listening to the recordings that were recommended, and otherwise carrying out the spirit of the unit which concentrated upon human needs.

The work of experimenting was carried forward by Professor Anna Carol Fults of the Arkansas State Teachers College, at Conway, Arkansas. It was possible for her to arrange a comparison group study in some communities near the college. The teachers of three groups of junior-high-school students worked with Professor Fults in an intensive study of the children in other classrooms. Certain children were identified as social rejects who had difficulty in learning the subject matter of home economics. In three other supposedly comparison groups a similar identification process was carried on, but here the teachers did not go through the process of studying the resource unit. The investigation was carried on over a period of four and a half months. At the beginning and end of the study evidence was gathered relating to the social acceptability of children, to reading, and to intelligence as measured by test scores in the three experimental classrooms. The experiment had one singular disadvantage: the teachers in the experimental groups were decidedly above average in their insight into human nature before the experiment began. They had had

advanced training, and had worked with Professor Fults for some time previously. It was argued that if teachers, with this more-or-less adequate background, were to improve noticeably in their classroom relationships, it might be reasonable to infer that, in further experiments, teachers who have had much less exposure to these ideas would also gain significantly. The test results reported by Professor Fults show gains that are statistically significant at the 1 per cent level, so far as changes which occurred in the students who had been identified as rejects and difficulty-in-learning cases. This work is being published very shortly by the Arkansas State Teachers College and will be available for teachers interested in the study. The identified "misfits" and difficulty-in-learning cases improved their scores notably on the reading test, on the intelligence test, and on the social acceptance test. Equally significant was the fact that those teachers who had participated in the study of the resource unit made changes in their teaching which were consistent with increased understanding of children.

In one sense, Professor Fults' study seemed to prove too much. That these teachers should have brought about such conspicuous changes in the children in a very short interval of time, and that other teachers over the same interval had not brought about extraordinary changes, was established by the data collected. The question remained, however, whether or not this change was largely due to the selection of teachers rather than due to a study of the children and the resource unit. At this point Miss Kathryn Feyereisen, who had been a teacher in the elementary schools of Des Moines, Iowa, indicated a desire to try out the resource unit with some teachers of Grades III, IV, and V, in the public schools of Des Moines. With the co-operation of very sympathetic administrative and teaching staffs Miss Feyereisen carried forward an investigation and an in-service program of selected-teacher training with an emphasis upon the understanding of children. In this project comparison groups were again identified. Tests relating to

reading, to intelligence, to social acceptability, and to emotional needs were administered. In addition, in Des Moines, arithmetic tests were given to these experimental and comparison groups. The study was completed in June and, in a personal communication, Miss Feyereisen reported that the experimental groups showed gains at the 1 per cent level in all of the factors tested. Taken as an entire group, the gains in the so-called comparison groups were not significant. It should be pointed out that both in the Arkansas and Des Moines situations not one single teacher carried on a program of remedial reading or of remedial arithmetic during the time that the study was in process. The gains seemed to come about from the improvement in the human relations between pupils and teachers and among students.

The reports of two investigations which utilized Professor Young's resource materials do not prove that all other teachers going through the same procedures would produce the same significant results. These two investigations do, however, suggest the wisdom of a much wider extension of the use of these materials for further testing. In the process of use, modifications will probably be forthcoming. The studies indicate a substantial backing to Professor Prescott's assertion that teachers, through appropriate study, can make great headway in the understanding of children, their needs, their values, their problems, and their abilities to think and plan independently.

Before closing this account of studies relating to the in-service training of teachers, I should like to mention an investigation recently conducted by Professor Ida Ruth McLendon of the University of Florida at Tallahassee. Miss McLendon explored a large number of problems associated with the social acceptance of children. She conducted her study in the public-school system of Hamilton, Ohio, and made use of the Ohio social acceptance scale. Miss McLendon developed a plan whereby the teachers attempted to identify the social class status of the children in their class-

rooms. The discussions of the various social class levels prepared by Miss McLendon and given to the teachers as a basis for rating were derived from Warner's and Lunt's book, *The Social Life of a Modern Community*. When teachers felt that they were unable to identify the social class status of a student they refrained from doing so.

When Miss McLendon compared the social class status of children with scores made on intelligence tests, reading tests, and social acceptance tests, there was a high interrelation. In fact the average score on intelligence tests of the upper-class children was the highest average; the average score of the middle-class children was the next highest average; the average score of the lower-class children was the lowest average. When the individuals in the lower class were divided into two groups of upper-lower and a lower-lower, the average scores in the factors measured yielded to the same trend. Miss McLendon infers that this hypothesis, which was developed but not tested in her study, may prove a fruitful one for further inquiry. Is it possible that social class status consistently influences the achievements of children—in ordinary school subjects, in intelligence test results, and in the making of friendships? Is it possible that social class discriminations might prove to be a cause of this very inability to achieve best results? The work of Miss Fults and of Miss Feyerisen (who is now a Professor of Education at Wayne University in Detroit) seems to be inconsistent with this hypothesis. But this may be more apparent than actual. It may well be that this correlation of social class with achievement is revealed when no conscious effort is made to further good human relationships among children and between children and teachers. It may be that an intense study related to the understanding of children might result in a significant contribution to American social living in the schools; and that, as a consequence, our society would become more of an open-class system than it is now.

These studies have been reported here because of their relationship to the understanding of children, and because of their support for the idea that teachers may further learning and good social relations among children. This listing of researches done is by no means complete; however, these studies are indeed stimulating contributions to efforts to bring about desirable changes in our public-school classrooms.

Dr. Louis E. Rath is Professor of Education at New York University and Director of Research at the Center of Research and Evaluation.

WHAT IS RIGHT IN AMERICAN EDUCATION?

(Editor's Note: The following letter from an engineer, working with the state department in one of the less literate countries, is so well timed that we are publishing it as an article. The name of the author had to be withheld for obvious reasons.)

The Editor,
Journal of Educational Sociology,
Payne Educational Sociological Foundation, Inc.,
32 Washington Place,
New York, N. Y.

Sir:

Reading part of your issue of the Journal of February 1947 and perusing the rest, I note with interest that most of the articles emphasize the "sour note" in our American system of education. I further note with great interest and to a later point that most of the writers are members of the order of Professional Pedagogues, which is to be rightly expected in such a Journal as your own.

I am constrained to say that an article by some one on the subject, "What Is Right about the Education System in the United States," wrong as the whole system may be, is in order. I think one of the most constructively critical articles of recent times was Norman Thomas' article "What's Right with America." No doubt you have read that dissertation.

The writer has been in all phases of Civil Engineering: teaching in a Major University, construction as Engineer and as contractors' representative, surveying, a Naval Officer in wartime construction and is now a Consulting Engineer to a project sponsored by the United States, specifically to determine what can be done through transportation, sanitation, water supply provision, drainage projects, and other physical matters, to spur the development of a country which has essentially no education system.

Sitting in my office today, I can see plenty that is right about the American educational system. In the first place we have one, in the second, with but few exceptions and glaring ones, schools are available to everyone. Then, too, most of the people have been taught to read and write at least and if anyone wishes to deny that that is good, let him try to live and work where 99 per cent of the people cannot read or write. Ideas have been disseminated and ideals, even though one would call them platitudes, have been inculcated which have made the average American more or less stable of mind and character. The basic and fundamental rights and sanctity of individuals and their property are more observed in the United States than anywhere else in the world.

Over a period of years, we in America have allowed the teaching of the theory of all the "isms" of the world in our educational system and though some would deny the ability to do this by condemnation of the heads of the schools, by withdrawing public funds from such schools and by other subterfuges or if not able to control education by these means to withdraw their children to the parochial schools or other private schools where they may be sheltered from truth, but thank all the powers that be such critics have yet to control education and the public school persists.

The seal of one great University, breaking away from the "intellectual" habit of dressing education up in strained Latin prefixes and suffixes, states in plain language "LET THERE BE LIGHT" and that it should be and for my part is the theme of American Education despite its critics, I mean public education!

Blaming juvenile delinquency on the schools or supposing that the disillusionment of returning veterans is the result of past schooling or is being heightened by the present schools to which they have the opportunity to go is rubbish. Are there less juvenile delinquents in a country where there is no education or where there are controlled schools? Are private property and human rights more sacred where there is no school system? In the civiliza-

tion which has grown up in Africa it is perfectly proper to take something I have because the taker does not have that thing. The world over those who have privilege prey on the other part of society, but did minorities of America ever face in education or any other matter such planned discrimination as do the people of this country or as they did in Europe during the late war?

Well, I think the American education system is good, and may I ask the professional pedagogues what they have done to correct the situation and what they are doing to correct the schools by always talking about the negative side?

My Father, still living in California, has often said to me, "Lad, when a man gets out of sorts with his fellows, or condemns the church or the schools or whatever, you had better look for the trouble in the man rather than in the fellows, the church or the social order." Who says the American education system is bad, and responsible for all of our ills, even though it may need some overhauling? I think returning servicemen do, in the main, feel that they are above the proven substantial moral truths because they have become men overnight, but I think that the most better swallow their pride and start in at the bottom and at least go through the motions which experience has shown to be useful. I am an embattled veteran too!

The schools may be dealing in some unrealities, and perchance are not too practical in many things, but the world needs, I believe, to have more of the credulity of the fairy story age and the faith that has marked strong men and nations since the beginning of time. Let us hold the hands of the public school high and contribute to her value by having our Professors live a bit of life themselves in order to have them able to impart some sound advice based upon experience, not theory, as important as that is.

As I look over the world, I know more and more why there are a preponderance of things right about our United States of America, her schools, her people and their ideals.

THE READING INTERESTS OF CHILDREN AND THE SCHOOL

R. Grann and Hortense D. Lloyd

With certain safeguards, society delegates to the school the major responsibility for stimulating and guiding the growth of its children. Reading has assumed a place of first importance in modern American life. Hence a major question is, "What is the influence of the school on the reading habits of school children?"

The findings of an overwhelming majority of the studies made show that the proportion of children who read books of their own accord increases rapidly in the primary and middle grades, and nears one hundred per cent in the junior high school. It is significant to note, however, that two tendencies are observed among senior-high-school pupils. In some schools wide reading continues among practically all pupils. In other schools the proportion of pupils who read decreases; the average lessening in the amount read having been attributed to distractions, to the increasing demands made on the time of young people as they grow older, and to the greater prominence of other interests.

In working with older children who have difficulty in reading we have encountered a twofold problem: (1) enlisting the pupil's desire to read, and (2) finding suitable materials. A frontal attack on reading problems has always been met with resistance engendered by unpleasant experiences in the pupil's past. Therefore, we have been forced to find more subtle methods of making reading of value to the children. The most effective method found thus far has been the provision of the driving force of a sustaining interest which is basic to any program of reading improvement. This has been accomplished by creating a need for reading; first by discovering the genuine interests of the pupils, and then by supplying simple materials relating to those interests.

Most investigations show that nearly all children above the third grade read newspapers and, to a lesser extent, magazines. The

proportion of pupils reading them increases steadily throughout the elementary-school age, reaching a high level during the junior-high-school period. Newspaper reading continues to be a universal practice throughout the high-school period, although there is a slight decrease in some schools in the amount of magazine reading. These facts indicate that the high-school years form a critical period with respect to the reading habits of many young people.

Studies concerning the kinds of books, magazines, and other materials that children like to read do not agree and are not conclusive. However, they do reveal several significant facts about children's interests: (1) children's preferences in reading vary widely at each age and grade level. This is a contradiction of the earlier prevailing view that all children in each grade are interested in, and should read to an appreciable extent, the same kind of books. (2) Children read more fiction than anything else, and like it better. It is not without significance that many pupils lose interest in reading about the age when interest in juvenile fiction declines. It would seem to indicate that the home, the school, and the libraries fail to encourage the development of new reading interests to replace the older ones based on children's fiction.

Since it has been shown that boys and girls will read with keen interest informational material that is well written for children, it is unfortunate that (3) children fail, at present, to read widely such informational books. It seems fair to assume that older pupils do not read informational materials because their interests in the problems discussed have not been thoroughly aroused. (4) Children prefer prose to poetry. This dislike for poetry is attributed to the methods used in teaching it in the schools.

By the age of fifteen the reading habits of boys and girls are more or less definitely formed. Available data indicate that boys express a preference for newspapers and current events, which they read for accounts of sports and for material relating to topics

of individual interest in the field of vocational activities. In common with girls, boys read a great deal of fiction, much of which is sensational or which portrays impossible situations. Girls also read poetry, humor, and biography. Since few girls' magazines are published, they usually turn to adult magazines. Of these women's magazines make the strongest appeal, followed closely by all-fiction magazines.

Pupils read a wide variety of magazines and newspapers; however, they report that the parts liked best are comics, stories, sports, pictures, and serious parts. Few school children read editorials; however, most of them like the cartoons, scandal, advertisements, poems, and columns. This seems to support the contention that pupils are progressing through school without forming a keen interest in reading those sections of newspapers and magazines which deal with problems of major significance. Consequently, it is apparent that the school (at all levels) is confronted with the decisive and imperative challenge to stimulate and direct valuable habits of book, newspaper, and magazine reading among its pupils.

Literature relating to the purposes of reading both in and out of school shows that elementary-school pupils read for, at least, the following purposes: to satisfy interest and curiosity; for fun; to extend their range of information; to secure specific facts; to secure rest and relaxation;¹ and for direction and safety. As pupils advance through the grades, the motives for reading become much more numerous and specific. However, teachers should stimulate children to read the better class of contemporary literature. In this respect the schools are failing to measure up to the current objectives of education. Are not the school's attempts to train for citizenship, for worthy home membership, for development of character, and for worthy use of leisure time likely to be

¹ We have often been amazed at the truly therapeutic value reading held for our pupils. The demands of the activity program (in the New York City schools) put heavy pressure on pupils. Mentally, emotionally, and physically weary, our pupils frequently turned to reading for release from strain.

of little worth if they fail to develop in the individual high ideals, worthy interests, and wholesome habits?

Much of the difficulty seems attributable to the fact that teachers and librarians are, with few exceptions, devoting most of their efforts to stimulating people to read and very little to guiding and redirecting their reading tastes. The task of elevating reading tastes is more urgent and more difficult. The classroom teacher should stimulate children to read the better type of literature, and the librarian should supplement that effort. But where the classroom teacher fails, the librarian's task is to initiate, stimulate, and direct the reading of the children. Where both fail society always suffers. It is of greatest importance that more schools give children access to fresh, interesting, well-written, and appealingly illustrated materials to serve the varied purposes that stimulate them to read. How else can we make real readers of our children, improve their reading, and expect them to continue to read voluntarily after their school days?

Investigations have shown that the reading proclivities of children (and adults) vary widely in different communities. Studies of the causes of differences in reading proclivities show a close relationship between the amount read and such factors as general intelligence of the citizens of a community, the extent of literacy, the efficiency of the school program, the accessibility of library materials, and the amount of productivity of the community as measured by the agricultural and manufactured goods produced. It is of significance that the effectiveness of the school's training and the accessibility of library materials rank high among the conditioning factors. It indicates that communities that now rank low in reading habits may do much to improve conditions both for their children and themselves by: (1) providing good schools that will develop habits of intelligent reading and cultivate strong motives for permanent interests in reading, and (2) providing adequate library facilities which will enable young people (and

adults) to continue to read for various purposes after they leave school.

The school must recognize that today it faces two problems in cultivating desirable reading habits. One is to improve the reading habits of the present generation of adults; the other, to develop reading interests and habits among children today² that will ensure a generation of intelligent and discriminating readers tomorrow. From the point of view of those interested in adult education, the first of these problems seems more immediate and urgent. The second problem, however, is more fundamental and must be solved effectively now if an increasing proportion of adults in the future is to have elevated tastes and desirable reading habits.

² We are currently analyzing available materials to determine the sociopsychological influences on children which encourage them to read or not to read. Although the analysis is incomplete, it has been discovered that the motivation varies with the social situation: (1) a socially well-adjusted child will tend to read what, and if, his contemporaries do; (2) for a socially maladjusted child, reading often represents a fantasy life and withdrawal from a difficult social situation.

R. Grann and Hortense D. Lloyd are former instructors in the public-school system of New York City and Wiley College. Dr. Lloyd is Professor of Social Studies at Elizabeth City State Teachers College, Elizabeth City, North Carolina.

INTERGROUP RELATIONS AT COSMOPOLITAN JUNIOR HIGH

Travis H. Taylor

Modern man faces vast conflicting developments tending to make human existence in the years ahead wonderful or horrible. Eventual outcome of this battle between historic forces for good and evil will depend upon the relative success of efforts to project elements of sound social philosophy into practical social reality. Integral to the widespread ignorance and misunderstanding at the base of this broad problem confronting man is the current configuration of intergroup tensions; tensions which threaten, through potential social, political, and economic disintegration, basic values of our civilization, including not only aspects of free, democratic education, but the very existence of such education itself.

Increasingly, school people are realizing that they must make vigorous educational attacks on the ominously threatening realities of intergroupal relations. To be effective, each such attack must be based on thorough social analysis of each local situation. There follows a brief report of a recent effort, in which the writer was involved, to determine intergroupal status in a certain school and neighborhood. Since the survey did not require expensive or complicated procedure, others attempting to deal with intergroupal relations in educational, or other, situations may be interested in the nature of the relatively simple steps taken and of the findings achieved.

For purposes of the report, the school referred to will be called "Cosmopolitan junior high"; the city will be called "Plains City."

Cosmopolitan junior high is in one of the poorest areas of Plains City. The school population, over 1,500 seventh, eighth, and ninth graders, is made up of Spanish-American children (25%), Negro children (17%), Japanese-American children (8%), and "Anglo" children (50%).

The instrument used in the investigation was a questionnaire developed with the help of the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Denver. Through the co-operation of the departments of anthropology and sociology at the same university D. U. students were given class credit for door-to-door interviewing in selected sections of the Spanish, Negro, Japanese, and "Anglo" neighborhoods near Cosmopolitan. Three hundred and eighty adult responses were thus secured. In the school itself, approximately fifty children were selected at random from each of the four groups and interviewed by the writer. Responses to the questionnaire were also secured from the sixty-two members of Cosmopolitan's faculty. While interviewing technique was admittedly not above technical reproach, findings were secured which have seemed significant to Don Cahalan of the National Opinion Research Center, and to John T. Robinson and Herbert Walther of the American Council on Education's Intergroup Study in co-operating schools.

Eleven questions were used in the interview in the order indicated:

1. Do you think that all kinds of children are (or are not) getting the right kind of training in school?
2. What changes do you think should be made in the schools?
3. Do you think that all kinds of people in Plains City do (or do not) have the same chance to get a good education?
(Those who replied "do not" were asked, "What kinds of people do not have the same chance as others to get a good education?")
4. When a child has trouble in school, do you think it is usually the fault of the teacher, the child, the parents, or the neighborhood?
5. Do you think that all kinds of people in Plains City do (or do not) have the same chance to get a good job?
(Those who replied "do not" were asked, "What kinds of people do not have the same chance as others to get a good job?")
6. Do you think that all kinds of people in Plains City do (or do not) have the same chance to live in a decent place?
(Those who replied "do not" were asked, "What kinds of people do not have the same chance as others to live in a decent place?")

7. Do you think that all kinds of people in Plains City should (or should not) be permitted to live where they want to live?

(Those replying "should not" were asked, "What kinds of people should not be permitted to live where they want to live?")

8. Do you think that all kinds of children are (or are not) treated equally well in school?

(Those replying "are not" were asked, "What kinds of children are not treated equally well?")

9. Do you think that all kinds of people should (or should not) have the same chance to have a good job?

(Those replying "should not" were asked, "What kinds of people should not have the same chance as others to have a good job?")

10. Do you think the children of all the different racial groups in this part of town do (or do not) get along well together in school?

(Those replying "do not" were asked, "Which group or groups are causing the trouble?" and, "What do they do that causes bad feeling?")

11. Do you think the school should do anything to help the children of all the different racial groups to get along better with each other?

(Those replying affirmatively were asked, "What should the schools do?")

The full report of the study includes sixteen tables and many pages of analysis. Only general summary can be included here.

Adults were much more critical of school training than were children. Substantial desire was evidenced in each child group for more learning, more individualized attention from teachers, and stricter school rules—manifestation apparently of deep-seated child need for order, hope, and social and psychological security. The relatively large size of the school population may be significant at this point. Seventy-seven per cent of the teacher group rated school training unsatisfactory, the main teacher suggestion for school improvement calling, as did many children, for more individualization of teaching. No significant intergroup differences appeared here.

Although the percentages of adults who offered suggestions

for school improvement corresponded closely with the percentages of adults who were critical of school training, comparative child percentages were as three to one; *i.e.*, three times as many children in each child group made fundamental suggestions for school improvement compared with the number of children declaring school training unsatisfactory. It would seem from this that children might need much more experience with free thought and free speech, so that feelings now expressed only by indirection can find the direct and democratic sort of outlet manifested more consistently among adults. Again no significant intergroup differences were noted at this point.

In contrast to general majority belief manifested in the existence of equality of educational opportunity, there was majority belief that inequality is the rule relative to housing and job opportunities. Children who believed that opportunities are not equal tended usually to attribute cause to poverty or lack of education; minority adults who denied existence of equal opportunities tended to attribute cause to race, and tended to feel that their own race had the hardest going. Many minority adults and some minority children told stories of specific cases of discrimination to lend credence to more critical and racially conscious responses.

While adults and teachers tended to be less satisfied than children with school training, children were much more dissatisfied with the quality of pupil intergroup relations than was any adult group. "Anglo" children and Spanish children were most critical among the children of pupil intergroup relations. The Spanish group is the poorest of the four Plains City groups living in the Cosmopolitan junior high district.

Teachers and children felt overwhelmingly that pupils are treated equally well in school. Adults were less convinced, about half of "Anglo" and Negro adults indicating doubt on the point.

With reference to the question concerning blame for pupil maladjustment, children blamed children in the main; adults tended

to blame parents. Teachers showed much more understanding of the multiple causation involved in maladjustment by tending to blame all factors; parents, neighborhoods, and children received more blame, however—in that order—than did teachers. Both Spanish groups stressed parental responsibility markedly less than did other groups.

Spanish responses, both adult and child, showed consistently less dissatisfaction than expressed by other groups, despite the fact that the Spanish are the poorest and generally the worst off of Plains City citizens. Poverty, and possible cultural factors, have been pointed to in discussions of this outcome. Some have suggested connection between this lack of critical feeling and majority Spanish affiliation with the authoritarian Catholic church.

All four groups indicated overwhelming majority belief that there should be equality of work opportunity and that the school should help improve intergroup relations. Interesting agreement with Myrdal's interpretation of the "American Dilemma" is seen.

In contrast to the relatively apathetic Spanish response, the Negro pattern consistently showed more critical feelings and beliefs and more concern over intergroup relations than were manifested by any other group.

The strong Japanese family system is still characteristic of the Japanese in Plains City. Japanese children manifested the same relatively secure and hopeful outlook in the study which they consistently manifest in Cosmopolitan junior high. Japanese adults indicated more than any other adult group a concern relative to housing and to neighborhood influences on children; a reflection, probably, of the "engulfing" of the small and scattered Japanese population in the large, poverty-stricken Spanish area of Plains City.

Minorities overwhelmingly opposed housing segregation; two out of five "Anglo" children, half of the "Anglo" adults, only one out of five teachers, favored the practice.

Intergroup antagonism was directed mainly at the poverty-stricken Spanish group, secondly at the better-off Negro group. Some members of all groups were willing to accept partial group responsibility for intergroup troubles, a constructive tendency more noticeable in the study among children than among adults.

WE THE STUDENTS OF PUBLIC SCHOOL 233—

Marion V. Brown

(Editor's Note: Good human relations are dependent upon good teaching and good administration. How school administration can become a part of the educational process itself is so well shown in this description that the editors deemed it worthy of study by our readers.)

January, 1947

Needed: one constitution for the General Organization of an elementary school.

June, 1947

Adopted: a constitution for the General Organization of Public School 233, Brooklyn.

——— and in between lies one semester of social studies, literature, composition, museum visits, assembly programs, current events, arguments, compromises, and the united efforts of 31 twelve-year-old children, the intellectually gifted children class of P. S. 233.

To understand why this particular class undertook the job at the time we must go back a little way in the history of both school and class, and must also consider what is happening in the world in which these children are now living and may someday lead.

Why

The school had acquired a new principal in February, 1946. By September it had acquired a general organization with officers and representatives, but there was still need of a constitution.

The school also had a problem in its guard system. The guards are divided into several squads. Safety guards stand at street crossings and supply that ounce of prevention by seeing that the other children obey traffic laws. The cleanup squad keeps the school grounds free from litter. The yard and stair guards take care of arrivals and dismissals. The fire guards open exits and discourage would-be stragglers.

Wherever there are rules there are usually people who break them. Children are people, and rules were occasionally broken. When infringements occurred the outcome of the then-existing machinery was a "guard slip" sent to the culprit's official teacher. Except in those very rare cases where physical injury necessitated an accident report, or where repeated offenses were called to the attention of the principal, punitive measures were left entirely to the official teacher's discretion. Naturally there were variations.

So there existed a need for a constitution and, even more pressing, for a uniform system of school regulations and punishments.

Who

The class is a group of intellectually gifted children. Their I.Q.'s range from 152 to 105. The few at the bottom are there because, in a large city school system, there are such things as registers and budgets.

Half these children had been I.G.'s for two and a half years. All but four had had one semester with their present teacher. They were capable of doing a task that would require superior mental ability, and they were accustomed to working together.

Why Again

The more powerful nations of the world are now engaged in a trial-and-error attempt at world government. They face grave and confusing problems. Whichever of these problems are not solved will be the inheritance that today's school children will receive from today's adults.

The sooner and the better those children know what it means to establish a government, to govern, and to be governed, the more likely it is that they will devise and accept the solutions to these world problems.

There have been times when not only the lack of recognition of common human needs but also the seeming inability of governing bodies to plan wisely has cast doubt upon the thinking abil-

ity of the governing bodies. If any segment of today's school children should be encouraged to understand and later to participate in government, it is that segment which possesses the greatest mental ability.

Considering this, I offered to suggest to my class (IGC7) that, since the school needed a constitution, they try to write one. From my point of view this topic had another advantage; the 7B course of study includes American history from the French and Indian War to the end of the federal period.

The first school day of the February term I asked the class how they would like to try to write a constitution as their unit. They thought "it would be a tough one" but they "would like to try it" "just to see if they could do it." And so it started.

Planning How

The first real step was a class discussion. With very little originality someone suggested that the school constitution be modeled after the Constitution of the United States. Everyone approved. And then the children realized that they did not know very much about the Constitution of the United States: the circumstances under which it was written, what specific difficulties it had set out to solve, or its internal structure. The next thing was, "Let's find out. Let's suspend writing anything until we know what we're doing."

This changed the discussion to planning how to study the Constitution of the United States. These children have a tendency to trace things to their beginnings. They blocked out a long-term plan that they thought should prepare them to formulate the constitution their school needed.

They planned to:

1. trace self-government in England, beginning with the Magna Charta;
2. discover what factors in the colonies' resources and geographical position, or in the colonists' political, philosophical, or religious

- backgrounds, or in their economic situations, tended toward self-government;
3. study the type of government in each of the thirteen colonies as to the amount of representation, their systems of election, their nominal and actual powers;
 4. find out why and how the colonies separated themselves from England;
 5. examine the postwar situation after the American Revolution;
 6. study the Constitution of the United States, clause by clause, to determine why each section was included and how it has affected subsequent history;
 7. write the school constitution.

Doing

The class started to carry out its plan the second week in February. They worked in committees of from two to five children. Although this part of the preparation was done principally during social-studies periods, there were several times when other lessons were used. In literature they read Patrick Henry's speech to the Virginia House of Burgesses. In art, some of them made colonial silhouettes. During one assembly period the principal told the other seven upper-grade classes that I.G.C. was writing a constitution and would welcome suggestions.

By March 14 the class had reached point five of their plan—the postwar situation after the American Revolution. In this they worked as one group. Then they made a detailed study of the Constitution. By April 14 they were ready to begin their school's constitution.

They had done so much preliminary work that the actual writing took only two weeks. First they listed their problems, some of which were:

1. When shall elections be held?
2. What shall be the qualifications for officers?
3. Who may vote?
4. What happens if an officer moves away?

5. Who may become a guard?
6. What if a guard says a child did something and the child says he did not?
7. Who shall make laws for the school?
8. Who shall decide how G.O. money shall be spent?

There were nearly forty items—a formidable array. They took a deep breath and began on the preamble. Everyone wrote one. All were read and the class voted for the one they liked best. At the end of two days they had a preamble and a list of problems. They had also the vision of the 6th of May approaching. May 6 was the date on which I.G.C. was scheduled to present a program to the seventh- and eighth-year assembly. Because it is customary for assembly programs to reflect the work of the classroom, the children wanted to present the finished constitution. But this time problem was something they could face directly. They grouped their listed problems under three headings:

1. executive department—officers and elections;
2. legislative department—student council;
3. judicial department—student court;

and by lot divided themselves into three committees. The committees went to work as if the fate of the universe hung on their decisions. The best of friends argued and compromised and argued again. At the end of the first period they were marveling that the men who wrote the Constitution had taken only four months to do it. A greater wonder was how Congress reaches agreements and pleases as many people as it does. And greater still was the wonder how if they who are friends, with common aims and small problems, disagree, how the United Nations, with its old mistrusts, and greater problems, does as well as it does.

They worked during English periods as well as during social-studies periods. They worked in each others' homes over the week end. On April 17 the committee on the student council

handed in its report. The class discussed it, praised it, attacked it. The committee explained and defended its work and made changes when its explanations and defenses were not equal to adverse criticism. It was obvious to the teacher that the class had the same philosophy about creating a government as the man who presided over the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia in 1787—that the members of the convention should not, in order to please the people, devise a government which they themselves would not approve.

The class visited the Museum of the City of New York for a lecture on the federal period.

By May 1 the tentative constitution was ready to be presented to the school. On May 6 it was presented to the seventh- and eighth-year assembly and on the next day to the fifth and sixth. Each section was read by a member of the I.G.C. class. The children in the assembly were permitted to ask questions and make comments. This was the public exercising its right of free speech. The I.G.'s found several places where there were flaws in their work and also found that some of the public has nebulous ideas. For example, among the qualifications for officers was "Congratulations from the Principal on the previous report card." Approximately one half of the I.G. class had this, therefore to them it had seemed a reasonable criterion. But a survey showed that in most of the other classes only three or four children could have met that one qualification; to say nothing of others nearly as stringent. So "Congratulations," which means five 90's and no failures, was changed to a weighted average of 85, but still no failures. This is a more attainable goal even though it probably does not satisfy the girl who wanted no marking standards, just "common sense."

The discussion lasted beyond the regular assembly period and still was not finished. The other classes wanted copies.

Doing Over

The next day the tentative constitution was reduced to a skele-

ton and copies sent to all the fifth- to eighth-year classes. They were asked to discuss it and to send in any specific suggestions by May 15. Approximately one hundred were received. Many were duplicates. These were sorted and the work of revision began. Each section was considered. If no suggestions had been received, no changes were made. If there were suggestions, each was discussed and the class decided whether a change should be made.

The constitution in its revised form was re-presented to a combined fifth-sixth, seventh-eighth year assembly on June 25. The children then voted in their classrooms. The vote was 256 to 54 and the constitution was officially adopted.

Marion V. Brown is teacher of the seventh-grade class of intellectually gifted children at P.S. 233, Brooklyn, New York.

EDUCATION AND THE TRANSITION

Sidney W. Rice

We may truly say that the present is an age of transition. In drawing such a conclusion, however, one is likely to make the erroneous generalization that any age in this rapidly changing world is one of transition. Especially is this true of the immediate present wherein any ordinary social change in the culture is apt to contain implications of world transformation.

The real test of the matter lies in the extent to which the actual bases of human life and endeavor are being changed. A period of transition is always marked by radical shifts of the social foundations and institutions about which society revolves. Ordinary social change does not imply, nor does it of necessity lead to, such uprooting of the established modes of living. It is concerned, rather, with the current institutions, their collateral social and economic heritages, and the improvement and perfection of life within the limits set by those institutions.

The period through which we are now passing is not something new to this generation. There is good evidence that society has been in a state of mobility since at least the 1890's. In all probability, present changes have their roots much farther back than that. The rapid rise of technology and the trend toward corporate, social, and collective action in our economy have made difficult the determination of ordinary and transitory changes in the culture.

The preindustrial society was based principally in the tradition of economic individualism, either of the type common to the freehold farmer or that of the enterpriser. The first, that of the freehold farmer, was characterized by the use it made of private property. Property consisted almost wholly of land and was maintained for the purpose of providing the needs of the household. Production was for use and, consequently, there was an absence

of markets. Also there was little problem of competition. The second, that of the enterpriser, can best be characterized by the use it made of private property, likewise. Here private property consisted mostly of the tools of production and was used for the purpose of profit. Naturally, there are many conflicts between these two forms of individualism, but for the present it may be said that the second form survived, and is in evidence in our culture today. Many of its theories have fallen into disrepute and have been discarded. More of them are being challenged in the interest of social advances.

There are many factors that mark our present transitional state. By no means the least of these is the rapid rise of technology. It has left its mark upon every phase of human life. The rapid rate of invention has had phenomenal social effect upon the world, in that it has placed in the hands of man powers of which no one ever dared dream. It has transferred the physical power of the agrarian age from man to machines. It has, to some extent, displaced the human element in production. It has inherent in its nature the power to bring a higher standard of living to all with a minimum of energy and time expended. Under its influence or, better still, with its assistance, we have emerged from a land-based, feudal society into an industrial age. Witness the far-reaching effects of the automobile and the radio upon travel, transportation, and communication. Consider also the possible results of the release of atomic energy.

Further evidences of transition may be found in the disintegration of the family brought about by the industrialization of the world. The home is no longer the self-contained unit it once was. The influence of the home is still apparent, but the home itself is less and less dependent upon its own productivity. Such independence has been displaced by the necessity for intercourse and closer interaction with other groups composing the masses of society. The whole economy has changed. Even the farmer

tills his soil with machinery, and for profit, so that he may buy the goods necessary for existence. He has, in a sense, become a specialist.

The changing position of women attests the passing of an out-moded phase of history. Political and economic equality is permitting them to offer valuable contributions to society. In art, literature, and the professions, they are showing talents comparable, and even superior, to those of the once unchallenged male.

The doctrine of *laissez faire* has been almost wholly abandoned in favor of a controlled economy. There are few people, indeed, who would care to go back to the old planless system of our earlier days of development. Big business, which in the beginning fostered the idea, has repudiated it. At least it has done so by implication. Evidence is seen of this in the spread of independent rating boards used by large insurance and surety companies to regulate rates, commissions, and conditions of competition. While these boards have little to do with government, they grew, nevertheless, from a recognition of the need for standardization, planning, and control within the industry. Today we see federal control of almost every branch of our economy. We see it in the erection of trade barriers, both domestic and foreign, and in the control of banking and credit. Legislated controls of corporate enterprise and the use of natural resources are accepted as necessary. The government has extended assistance to agriculture. Everywhere there is evidence of the demise of the doctrine of *laissez faire*.

New efforts in the direction of health and social security for the masses are assuming great importance. Here again is a departure from the old idea of "live and let live." Legislative action in this field denotes worth-while advances.

The role of "collective action" may be said to have some bearing on the question. The rise of labor unions, professional, trade, and consumer groups is bringing into clearer focus the problems

of the masses, and is making apparent the necessity for a close scrutiny of the values by which we have been living.

The implications in all of this for education are many and varied. First, it makes imperative a reappraisal of our educational system in the light of present and probable future needs. This process of reappraisal must be continuous if education is to have meaning and purpose. It is significant that the late President Roosevelt in one of his later messages gave prominence to the inalienable right of every individual to a "good education."

It is the obligation of the democracy under which we live to provide equal educational opportunity for all its citizens regardless of race, creed, or color. The problems inherent in such an undertaking are difficult to enumerate and more difficult yet to solve. They are tied up with such considerations as racial, religious, and social prejudices. Present, also, is the economic factor which precludes any thought of equality of opportunity under our present system. Further, such equality now varies from section to section, state to state, and even extends to lesser subdivisions of the state.

Granting that equality in this respect could be achieved, other problems, fully as important, arise. Among these are the questions of administration, teaching, and curriculum. Whether administration is to be left in the various subdivisions of the states or whether it is to be centralized under federal control is being discussed. Defenders of the present system point to many dangers of centralization, chief among which is the argument that by so doing we would subject education to exploitation for political purposes.

Aside from the implications in the above statement, we are confronted with the problem of what to teach and how best to teach it. The task, under these conditions, becomes more difficult for the educator. Always there are many conflicts during a period of transition, arising out of the chaos and decay of a passing age.

In such times it becomes the duty of the educator to direct; to show the student through a maze of conflicting doctrines and confusing trends; to help him choose and clarify alternatives, consequences, loyalties, allegiances, and penalties. Such direction is important because upon it depends the future of our world.

Sidney W. Rice is Professor of Health and Physical Education in Milligan College, Tennessee.

SOCIETIES AROUND THE WORLD

Irwin T. Sanders

In the past, geographers and sociologists have made rather strange bedfellows. The geographers have accused the sociologists of overlooking certain important climatic and physiographic factors in the explanation of social phenomena; the latter have looked upon human geographers, especially the followers of Ellsworth Huntington, as naïve monists who seek to fit all data into altogether too narrow a mould of preconception. At the University of Kentucky, by force of fortunate circumstances, the geographers and the sociologists found themselves working out a joint course which could be chosen by freshmen or sophomores to satisfy the lower-division social-science requirements. (At present, other courses which may be chosen instead are American civilization or European civilization, taught jointly by the political science and history departments.)

In planning this course, which was titled *Societies Around the World*, a threefold purpose was kept in mind:

1. To give the student a social perspective which would aid in the constructive evaluation of his own society, as well as others.
2. To introduce the student to the fields of geography and sociology, both with respect to basic principles and methods.
3. To indicate important relationships existing between habitation and society.

In order to achieve these purposes it seemed best to use the comparative method. That is, six societies which represented different types of habitat and varying degrees of social complexity were selected. During the first quarter (5 hours weekly) the societies considered are the Eskimo, the Navajo, and the Baganda. The second quarter (5 hours weekly) the societies studied include the Chinese peasant, the cotton South, and the English Midlands. As will be readily apparent, the habitations range from

the Frigid Zone to the Torrid Zone, from the isolated desert habitation of the Navajo to the humid island of Britain. The societies represented begin with the relatively undifferentiated Eskimo, move to the Navajo with a matrilineal clan system and highly ritualized religion, to the Baganda of East Africa with their complex-indigenous-political structure. The Chinese peasant is illustrative of the preponderant peasant masses of the world whose chief social values have been ownership of land and familial obligations; the cotton South illustrates social stratification, both with respect to caste and class, and an exploitative economic system based on a cash crop; while the highly industrialized English Midlands introduces the student to urbanization, economic specialization, and the development, on a large scale, of segmental interests within a complex society.

Appropriate geographical and sociological terminology is taught early in the course in order to facilitate the discussion of each society. The net result of this is that most of the basic concepts are used in connection with six different societies and become, through repetition, a real part of the student's working vocabulary and understanding. Some terms, however, are used specifically with only one or two societies to which they have special pertinence. Each student has a set of geographical terms and an approved atlas, as well as a set of sociological terms and Reuter's *Handbook of Sociology*.

In view of the unavailability of texts that gave a good cross section of primitive, peasant, and Euro-American societies, the instructors had to work out their own syllabus. Since it was impossible to expect such large classes to obtain all of their study materials from required reading in the overtaxed library, special source books for each society had to be prepared. These six source books, averaging 140 pages, consist of selections which cover most of the habitation factors and characteristics of a given society, and are issued in mimeographed form for local campus

use. These constitute a veritable mine of valuable geographical and sociological data and prove excellent teaching devices. The disadvantages of studying from mimeographed materials make this method of reproduction a temporary expedient, but in this course the students prefer readings from many different sources to the uniform, predigested style of a textbook.

The central assumption in organizing the course was that *students learn about societies best by studying them as wholes*. Consequently, throughout the study attention is focused upon the total way of life of each people. First of all the student studies about the Eskimo as an Eskimo, and about the Chinese as a Chinese; and later on becomes conscious of geography and sociology as separate disciplines. Experience in teaching such a course shows the wisdom of approaching a society in somewhat the traditional breakdown: (1) habitation; (2) maintenance institution (economic adjustments); (3) social organization, together with value systems, methods of social control, etc; (4) cultural change, with an emphasis upon dynamic forces which now are giving a new direction to the culture. This usually calls for an analysis of the impact of Western technology and ideologies upon other societies.

When approached this way the course becomes one that can put the latest visual aids to best use. Basic maps and precipitation and temperature charts are required for each habitation. For each society two class periods (fifty minutes each, spaced ten days apart) are devoted to excellent educational films on that society. Movie reports written by the students show beyond question the value such films have in illustrating certain features of the habitation and social organization. (Film strips for use in detailed study of important culture traits are also being prepared.) Points which do not readily lend themselves to photography are then emphasized by class discussions. Assignments are so scheduled that toward the end of the quarter, while class sessions are being devoted to comparisons and contrasts of the societies studied,

the students can read some topic of their own choosing. They either pursue some central theme through several societies or else do extensive reading on some society not taken up in class. Since the course was launched in September 1946, experimentation with several sections has shown the desirability of having one instructor carry a section throughout the quarter, teaching both the geographical and sociological content. Of course, there are frequent consultations and exchanges of notes between geographers and sociologists. Teaching such a course has proved a tremendous task for the instructor because he has had to obtain an acquaintanceship, if not a familiarity, with one other field, and has had to study intensively six contrasting societies. Six different instructors have had a part in this course. Some frankly dubious ones who embarked upon the venture were almost overwhelmed at what was expected of them. But, as he gained experience with the course, each one, whether geographer or sociologist, became a convert to this approach. Teaching became much more meaningful. No longer did the sociologist have to appear before his class and say, "Today we are to study social stratification," and then proceed to pick illustrations from India, from England, and from elsewhere, without ever having introduced the students to India or to England or to elsewhere. (The illustrations in such cases prove out of context and the concept seems sterile and unrelated to everyday life.) But when one discusses status systems in societies which the students have studied in detail, then the concept becomes alive and relationships are readily observed.

Such a course as this could well be expanded to include economists, social anthropologists, and political scientists, provided that each instructor were willing to learn and to teach the fundamentals of the co-operating disciplines through the medium of portraying societies as living entities. The instructor's slogan in connection with the mastery of new material has been, "If the freshmen can learn it, I can learn it too."

A markedly unique feature of the course has been the co-operation of geographers and sociologists, none of whom has had a hobbyhorse to ride madly down the academic corridors. The sociology taught has had more meaning; for by visualizing the living space the students can more easily discern the less tangible area of social relationships. The geographers have found that a consideration of social factors rounds out the picture of man as a social being.

Irwin T. Sanders is Head of the Department of Sociology at the University of Kentucky.

INTERGROUP RELATIONS IN ARIZONA

Roy C. Rice

How much do we know about the actual intergroup relations as they exist in the secondary schools of Arizona? If there are problems in this area, what can be done in the teacher-training institutions to help alleviate the situation? We may go a bit further and ask the question, "What do the school administrators think about this problem of intergroup relations?"

It is with these and similar questions in mind that we attempt to interpret the information gathered from questionnaires¹ returned by forty-two of the sixty-five secondary schools in Arizona.

Part I. School and Community

Arizona is a state with several distinct areas of occupation, consequently containing regions of different nationalities with individual cultures, beliefs, and practices. Approximately three fourths (73.7 per cent) of the secondary schools are located in open country or in small towns having populations of less than 10,000. This fact is accompanied by the knowledge that 23.7 per cent of these schools are integral parts of systems including grades one through twelve. Only 60.5 per cent of the secondary schools are set up for grades nine through twelve. The others include grades one to twelve, seven to twelve, eight to twelve, or ten to twelve.

Approximately one fourth of the secondary schools have enrollments of one hundred or less. With such a large number of small schools, it is not surprising to find that fifty per cent of the teachers are located in school systems employing ten or less teachers. When we consider the population of these schools we find that about one school in six has less than fifty per cent Anglo-American pupils in attendance. The other groups, in decreasing order of occurrence, are Mexican, Negro, and Indian.

¹ The School Inventory: Intergroup Relations (compiled by Hugh M. Bell) was used with slight modification.

A consideration of the religious choices of the pupils in these schools shows that three fourths (79 per cent) of the schools have fifty per cent or more Protestants, and that one fifth (21 per cent) have fifty per cent Catholics. Other faiths with slight followings are the Jewish, Mohammedan, and Hindu faiths.

With the school districts located primarily in farming areas and small towns it was found that the heads of the families work in the following capacities: miners and factory workers, farmers and ranchers, skilled tradesmen, clerks, business owners, and professional men. The people in the school districts mix and mingle as they please in 68.5 per cent of the districts; in the remainder of the districts the people live in distinct areas with the Mexicans as the most distinctive group represented. There appears to be very little change taking place in the various districts. The minority group seems to be increasing slightly in a few areas and decreasing in other areas.

Part II. Pupil Attitudes and Behavior

In any educational institution we are concerned with the development of proper attitudes and behavior patterns. However, quite frequently we fail to realize that the pupil attitudes and behavior patterns are far from the most desirable. At times we tend to be blind to these factors which cause the less desirable attitudes and behavior patterns.

The most obvious divisions and cleavages in the secondary schools in Arizona take place along the lines of race, income levels, and national cultures. The percentages for these divisions are 47.5, 20.0, and 17.5, respectively. Only 10.5 per cent of the schools have no such lines of division.

The most overt discriminations and conflicts take place in the choice of friends, in clique groupings, and in name calling, for which the percentages are 39.2, 28.2, and 10.8, respectively.

Twenty-one per cent of the schools report no such lines of bad feelings among pupils.

When actual conflicts, overt or repressed, have arisen in or about the schools they have usually been along such racial lines as: (1) Mexican versus non-Mexican groups; (2) Mexicans voting solidly for Mexican candidates in school elections; (3) name calling by Anglo-Americans leading to violence with Mexicans; (4) the rest of the school, especially Anglo-American boys, resenting the Mexicans dating Anglo-American girls. Only twenty-one per cent of the schools report that they have no such conflicts.

The fewest such conflicts (18.7 per cent) occur in the classrooms. The next most frequent place for such conflicts (28.1 per cent) is in other rooms such as toilets, locker rooms, and assemblies; while the greatest number of such conflicts (53 per cent) occur in other places, as "to and from school," which represented 25 per cent of those in this group.

The three most prominent areas of school life wherein pupils tend to exclude, keep aloof from, or otherwise discriminate against minority-group members are school dances (29.4 per cent), school parties (15.7 per cent), and class offices (11.8 per cent). The Mexicans and other minority-group members hold important class offices, and both scholastic and athletic honors. Of course, we must realize that quite frequently the good athlete is elected to a class office and is accepted by the majority group as long as he continues to excel in the area of sports.

Part III. School Practices, Changes

When we consider what is going on in our schools and just what examples the teachers are setting for the pupils, it is no wonder that there are indecision and the development of prejudices on the part of the pupils.

Many of the schools report that there are no groups towards which faculty dislike, discrimination, or unfair treatment is most

likely to be shown. The one minority group in Arizona that is most likely discriminated against is the Mexican group, which is as one might expect, since it is a large group in this state.

In a teacher-training institution it is well to know whether or not the members of the minority groups can expect to secure employment in the teaching profession after they have spent four or five years in preparation. In Arizona there are certain definite objections to the hiring of members of the minority groups. Approximately 40 per cent of the schools object to the hiring of Japanese-Americans on their staffs. Fifteen per cent of the schools object to the hiring of Spanish-Americans (or Mexicans) as Spanish teachers, while 21 per cent of the schools object to the members of this group teaching in other areas of instruction.

The dealings with the parents in some communities furnish many problems to the teachers. However, there does not seem to be any one particular group of parents with whom trouble occurs. Several of the responses indicate that trouble often occurs with parents of low income, parents of the supposedly good pupils, parents not wanting the responsibilities of parenthood, and parents associated with cliques in the community.

Very few of the schools are aware of any pressure groups in the community likely to interfere in school policy or ask special favors. Only about one third of the schools report pressure groups, and these groups seem to be very diversified.

Some schools have attempted to put forth special effort to solve intergroup problems through the following means: (1) parental and community co-operation; (2) good will and active co-operation; extracurricular activities; (3) course of study or curricular changes; (4) pupil's out-of-school life. Unfortunately there are too few schools that have attempted to improve intergroup relations in their communities even though they realize that such problems exist.

Part IV. Outlook for the Future

To look to the future, in the light of the responses made, it is found that the majority of the school administrators are optimistic. They believe that the intergroup problems will remain the same, or will grow better. However, a few of these administrators are not too optimistic. Two responses given are very realistic, as follows: (1) the "skilled trades are open only to apprentices from native Americans"; (2) "more Mexican boys 16 to 18 (years of age) will be out of work. Mexican boys back from the service resent this distinction."

The question, "Where in the nation at large can we expect the most effective leadership toward democratizing intergroup relations within the next decade?", brought rather diversified responses. The areas to which we might look for this leadership, in descending order of the responses, are through the local school system, in newspapers, in school-community councils, colleges, and universities; in churches; from radio broadcasters, and school administrators; in labor unions; at civic-luncheon clubs; in the government; in commercial motion-pictures.

In answer to the question, "Why are schools in general not making more progress in democratizing human relations within the school?", we find several items given as prominent causes. Approximately one third of the schools lay the blame on parental opposition. One fifth of the schools state the cause as community pressure. It is well known that there are towns in the Southwest where members of certain minorities are not welcome and where members of these minority groups dare not stop to spend a night. Faculty inertia is a third cause for our present lack of progress as indicated by 15.7 per cent of the replies. A fourth cause lies in the minority groups themselves. Other causes are administrative indecision, school-board conservatism, public indifferences, and so-called pupil concern.

Since this problem of intergroup relations is large, the schools must seek the aid of other organizations interested in the work. The areas in which these other organizations can help in the solution of the problem are: in pupil guidance (27.3 per cent); school-community co-ordination (22.7 per cent); assemblies (10.2 per cent); community surveys, trips, experiences (10.2 per cent); arousing faculty concern (9.1 per cent).

The preparation of future teachers is very important if the institutions of higher learning are to supply the needs of the secondary schools of the state. If there is some particular aspect of the preparation which should be given more emphasis than is given at the present time, the institutions of higher learning should be made aware of this need. Over one half (52.6 per cent) of the schools would prefer to have their new teachers with teaching experience in their major and two minor fields. Approximately one third (31.6 per cent) replied that the new teachers should have experience in their major and one minor fields, while less than one tenth (7.9 per cent) wanted new teachers with experience in their major field only. The majority of the schools want teachers who are prepared to work with their pupils in what have been known as extracurricular activities—hobbies, dramatics, school publications, sports, music, library work, scouting, etc.

There is also an indication that the schools are looking for individuals on their faculties who have had experience in fields outside of the school. Such experiences would include business, industry, civic clubs, travel, and similar activities.

The reactions of the school administrators to the questionnaire indicate that there are at least three distinct groups of administrators in the secondary schools of Arizona. The three groups include those who: (1) see no problem in these intergroup relations; (2) are aware of the problems and are making a conscious effort to do something to better the conditions which they know exist; (3) are not at all concerned with such problems. The second group

appears to be in the minority. However, some of the returns which were checked in certain responses to imply that they had no problems in their schools or communities contradicted themselves by checking definite areas of conflict in other items of the questionnaire.

The use of this questionnaire has brought together some pertinent information for the use of those who are aware of such intergroup problems. It may also instigate some constructive thinking on the part of the school administrators and teachers, and thus bring about a more conscious effort to direct their attention toward some of the aspects of their schools and communities which have heretofore gone on as usual.

Roy C. Rice is Associate Professor of Education in Arizona State College, at Tempe, Arizona.

BOOK REVIEWS

Description and Measurement of Personality, by RAYMOND B. CATTELL. New York: World Book Company, 1946, 602 pages.

Thorndike's statement that "whatever exists, exists in some quantity and can—at least theoretically—be measured," is taken as a fundamental axiom of this treatise on human personality. The author deplores his observation that present-day research in psychology has lost deliberation and planning in that "no one has stopped to deal thoroughly with the task of describing and measuring personality variables." He objects strenuously to the applied psychologist's impatience to "predict and control, without having first observed, described, and measured."

The book is the first of two volumes, and is described by the author as being a "cross-sectional, instantaneous depiction of personality." The second volume, proposed to be a longitudinal study of personality, was not yet written at the time the first was published.

The first six chapters deal with principles and methods involved in the measurement of personality. Here the author begins with a description of the generally accepted syndromes utilized in clinical psychology and psychiatry. From this he works into an excellent theoretical discussion of the meaning of personality traits and trait unities, and of methods suitable for their measurement. Here a distinction is made between "source" traits and "surface" traits. The latter, being more readily observed, have hitherto held the attention of most investigators. Consequently, the current need is for a more careful investigation of source traits. The seldom-clarified concepts of the interaction of traits and the dynamic structure of traits are presented carefully and consistently, but with a necessarily high degree of theoretical abstraction.

In the second part of the book (chapters VII through XII) the author does a scholarly and much-needed job of evaluating and integrating the significant research findings in this field to date. This is based upon an unusually complete listing of traits and syndromes derived from an exhaustive study of research data.

In the final chapter the author catalogues and interprets each of the twelve primary-source traits which he offers as being those most convincingly demonstrated through factor analysis. To me this represents

the high point of the entire book. The treatise is concluded with reference to a number of proposed topics for further research in the field.

The book is carefully and thoughtfully written, but is not one which is easily read. The treatment presupposes a familiarity on the part of the reader with the general principles of factor analysis. There are a number of points expressed rather forcefully by the author which will undoubtedly serve to antagonize many psychologists. For example, reference is made to the Rorschach test as being something on a par with a patent medicine. However, this book will undoubtedly serve a fundamentally important purpose in causing more profound thought on the part of any reader, and in provoking a greater amount of significant and basic research in the field of personality investigation.

PAUL L. MERRILL

Child Psychology for Professional Workers, by FLORENCE M. TEAGARDEN, revised edition. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946, 613 pages.

In advanced courses my students and I enjoyed the first edition of this textbook. Its value is now enhanced by copious 1940-1946 references, and by addition to, or the rewriting of, many sections. For example, in the chapter headed, "Getting the Child into the World," we now have material on blood groups and the Rh factor, tables on medicolegal applications of blood types, and charts showing stages in fetal development and labor.

Case contrasts strengthen the chapter on "Fundamental Physical Habits"; and the chapter on children with visual handicaps has been strikingly improved. The work covering parental attitudes, broken homes, foster homes, and adoption and institutional handicaps remains practically the same except for new documentation. Projective techniques and substitutes for the I.Q. receive too brief a treatment for the prospective social workers, teachers, nurses, and counselors who need this compendium.

MIRIAM C. GOULD

Dynamics of Learning, by NATHANIEL CANTOR. Buffalo: Foster & Stewart Publishing Company, 1946, 282 pages.

"We must have planning while, at the same time, we provide for active, positive participation by individuals. We must have centralized

economic control while . . . permitting individual initiative to operate. The dignity of man and not merely the quest for profits must become the goal of the postwar, world-wide reconstruction."

So writes the author. His belief is that the aim of education is to equip students to achieve these ends. He contends that our current school system fails to equip them and induces, rather, "fear of authority, fear of change and emphasis upon individual 'learning.'" Subjects, he says, are taught—not students. His purpose is to center the whole process of education on the student's need. The book shows how this can be done. Illustrations of teacher-student relations, based on shorthand versions of actual class discussions, are given. Student's testimonials to the effectiveness of the technique are also included.

C. A. SIEPMANN

Katherine Kent, by MARY S. GARDNER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946, 298 pages.

Katherine Kent is a charming story of a public-health nurse who begins her career in the early days of public-health nursing. Into this story of the personal and professional trials of "Miss Kitty" is interwoven an accurate and interesting history of the development of public-health nursing.

Public-health nursing agencies will find *Katherine Kent* a valuable addition to their libraries. Supervisors will find real inspiration from Miss Thomas, "Miss Kitty's" supervisor and friend. Here is a supervisor who demonstrates so well how to release the latent talents of her staff, and how to nourish the spark of leadership. Student nurses will find *Katherine Kent* an excellent means of becoming acquainted with the field of public-health nursing.

VERA FRY

Essays in Sociology, by MAX WEBER. Translated, edited, and with an introduction by H. H. GERTH and C. WRIGHT MILLS. New York: Oxford University Press, 1946, 490 pages.

In an effort to make accessible to the English-reading public an accurate rendering of selected Weber writings the authors warn their readers that in editing this work they have violated two of Tytler's three principles of translation. To one who has had to labor through

German texts in an effort to catch a fuller spirit of what in many instances must have been inspired lectures, the volume is most welcome and valuable. This reviewer willingly accepts the semantic decisions and conclusions of the scholars who edited the volume, for they have done effective and interesting translations.

The tremendous influence of Weber's historical sociology on social theory in the United States, his studies of religion, his analysis of the new middle class as a refutation of the Marxian theory of increasing proletarianization, and his sociological analysis of the modern state as a "compulsory association which organizes domination" are particularly noted in the essays selected for translation. But the very interesting introductory chapter on "The Man and His Work" yields such items of contemporary interest and import as a conversation between Weber and General von Ludendorff which took place shortly after the former had suggested that the number one German militarist, as a designated war criminal, offer his head to the enemy: Ludendorff: "Then what do you mean by a democracy?" Weber: "In a democracy the people choose a leader in whom they trust. Then the chosen leader says, 'Now shut up and obey me.' People and party are then no longer free to interfere in his business." Ludendorff: "I could like such a democracy." Weber: "Later the people can sit in judgment. If the leader has made mistakes—to the gallows with him."

IRA REID

Why Men Hate, by SAMUEL TENENBAUM. New York: The Beechurst Press, 1947, 368 pages.

No problem demands more attention and thought than that of man's relationships with his fellow men. What to do with the atomic bomb is of little consequence when compared with the importance of the problems of human relationships. Solve these and we will automatically solve the problem of the atomic bomb. It is for this reason that Dr. Tenenbaum's book *Why Men Hate* is important; for here in a clear, interesting, nontechnical fashion Dr. Tenenbaum examines the many facets of the problem of the causes of bigotry and hatred. All the purveyors of hate and their techniques are adequately discussed. Arthur de Gobineau, Huston Chamberlain, and Adolf Hitler are featured; but lesser luminaries of racism, not only abroad but in the United States as well, pass in scientific judgment of their theories.

That the causes of prejudice and hatred, as well as the causes of crime, are polychotomous is indicated by the author's discussion of their causes. Since there is no single cause the cure must include as many approaches as there are causes. In Part VIII of the book, running some sixty pages, the author attempts a discussion of the cures which have been, and could be, tried. No single cure or panacea is offered for the eradication of hate, but a series of approaches, which includes attacks on the economic, sociological, psychological, and legalistic fronts, is described. The solutions discussed do not seem to have been put into action as painstakingly as have the causes of the problem been isolated.

It seems to me that Section V of the book, *Cultural Pluralism vs. Cultural Regimentation*, is one of the weaker parts of the work. While the author shows that our nation is the richer for the cultural contributions of American immigrants, he seems at the same time to imply that much more could have been gained if we had maintained a system of "Cultural Pluralism." While I do not believe that one's culture is something which can be changed as one changes his jacket—as those who advocate the "Melting Pot Theory" of Americanization seem to believe—in the theory of cultural pluralism I do see certain weaknesses which are not even hinted at by the author. A certain amount of unanimity of opinion and uniformity of behavior are necessary for the smooth functioning of any society; therefore the necessity of some system of assimilation. Carried to its logical conclusion (Switzerland, with cultural autonomy for its German, French, and Italian citizens, is given as an example), the theory of cultural pluralism would make of America a veritable tower of Babel. The pattern and tradition of American culture would suffer; and the immigrant, separated from the dominant culture by the gulf of cultural differences—language, customs, folkways, and mores, would sacrifice full participation in whatever of worth his adopted culture had to offer. Most people will accept the fact that faulty programs of assimilation are detrimental to the immigrant as well as to the assimilating group, for the process is one of interpenetration. However, the author seems to believe that any attempt at Americanization must result in pressuring the immigrant into becoming "a 100 per cent American."

The book *Why Men Hate* is full of quotable passages, arguments, and facts with which any one who would answer the racist should arm himself.

EDWARD J. KUNZER

Youth in Trouble, Studies in Delinquency and Despair, by AUSTIN L. PORTERFIELD. Fort Worth, Texas: The Leo Potishman Foundation, 1946, 135 pages.

The relationship between the delinquency of an individual and his status in the community is the problem of particular interest to this author. He notes that the child who gets into court is usually a friendless child who is without a respected place in the community. Porterfield has pointed out earlier that the complainants who prefer charges against children tend to be peevish and irresponsible individuals. He presents the results of a survey of college students indicating that the behavior of the students had at one time been as delinquent as the behavior of children who are called into court, yet the youth who reach college have rarely been in court.

Three illustrative case stories are presented emphasizing the struggle for status and for a feeling of belongingness. The author feels that the community as a whole is responsible for the criminal cultural patterns that exist within it, consequently any adequate prevention program must involve processes of community organization, starting with co-ordinating councils or area councils to integrate and enlarge existing programs.

There is a certain amount of duplication of material in different chapters, apparently due to the fact that some of the chapters were published earlier as separate articles. Despite the rather loose editing, however, the plea for the education of the community to the necessity for a broad co-ordinated program is very strong.

PAUL SHELDON

Child Psychology and Development, by LOUIS P. THORPE. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1946, 781 pages.

The contribution of this worthy textbook to the field of child study consists chiefly in the comprehensive character of its content. In the organization and plan of the book, in style of presentation, in its expressed viewpoint (patterned eclecticism!), and in the diversified audience for which usefulness is claimed this text does not differ greatly from the representative books now widely used.

The volume is omniverous. The inclusive scope of the materials is demonstrated by the fifteen chapters with their intricate subtopics. The prefatory promise to provide access to the scientific literature is abun-

dantly kept by prodigious documentation from a variety of well-selected sources. There is justification for the expressed belief that this book will meet the needs of many different types of people who live and work with children.

A feature of this text which places it in a class by itself is the abundance and effectiveness of its visual aids. The pictures, tables, figures, charts, and other illustrative devices are outstanding. Wherever a suitable book is being sought in the field of child psychology and related areas and courses, this recent serious and competent contribution by Professor Thorpe must be considered.

EDWARD L. KEMP

Personnel Research and Test Development in the Bureau of Naval Personnel, edited by DEWEY B. STUIT. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1947, 513 pages.

Designed as a comprehensive evaluation of Navy test and personnel procedures during the war, this volume offers to psychological and personnel workers an encompassing survey of new and familiar techniques applied in large-scale research. Despite occasional duplication, its twenty-two chapters and five technical appendices provide a play-by-play developmental study of the problems encountered and the methods employed in staffing ships and stations with effectively screened and selected man power. Outstanding features are its completeness, carefully detailed organization, frank and documented discussions of criteria selection, validation shortcomings, measures of personal adjustment, and suggestions for new directions and methodology.

PHILLIP J. ZLATCHIN

The *Dictionary of* **SOCIOLOGY**

Edited by HENRY PRATT FAIRCHILD
with the collaboration of 100 eminent Sociologists

THIS BOOK blazes a new trail in consolidating and standardizing the usage of the best writers and scholars in its field. It provides a precise working terminology.

The publication of the Dictionary of Sociology was made possible only through the cooperation of distinguished scholars, each recording the most authentic interpretation of the important concepts in the field. The book is, in this sense, truly up to date, and has taken cognizance of the many changes that have occurred during the last decade.

"The Dictionary of Sociology will prove enormously helpful and will be shelved not more than five feet from the desk chair of every sociologist in the world."—*Professor Edward A. Ross, University of Wisconsin*

"Represents a tremendous amount of work by a board of distinguished sociologists assisted by nearly 100 contributing editors. Will be consulted frequently and with profit."—*John A. Fitch, Columbia University*

"... refreshingly free from pseudo-ritualistic cant and makes no pretenses; but is definitive, really informative, and strangely enough, readable. . . . The book is recommended to all who have need to deal with sociological concepts, whether from the point of view of the writer or that of the reader."—*Child Development Abstracts and Bibliography*

Limited Edition

Order Now

\$6.00

PHILOSOPHICAL LIBRARY, Publishers

15 East 40th Street,

Dept. 91,

New York 16, New York



THE AMERICAN WAY OF LIFE

By **HARRY E. BARNES** and **OREEN M. RUEDI**

America's familiar institutions, problems, and trends are analyzed in simple language to produce this highly readable text on sound sociological principles. The book has been highly praised by professors; nearly 150 colleges and universities have adopted it in 1946-1947. Notice these advantages:

- Provides an extensive view of 20th-century civilization
- Gives an enlightening comparison of the economic, social, and political institutions in totalitarian and democratic countries
- The style is lively and interesting, the organization simple and logical, to make this the ideal basic text for your social science survey course
- Numerous photographs, illustrated charts, and up-to-date facts keep student interest unusually high

NEW HORIZONS IN CRIMINOLOGY

By **HARRY E. BARNES** and **NEGLEY K. TEETERS**

Here is a masterful analysis—the outgrowth of ceaseless research by two outstanding sociologists—which presents a simple, realistic plan for dealing with criminals. The approach is based upon the need for a new concept of crime, to include economic, social, and political misbehaviour. A stimulating volume that offers:

- A new approach to penology by discarding traditional fallacies and presenting fearlessly the facts as they are
- New definitions of crimes and criminals, based on relative harmfulness to society
- Study of the etiology of crime, including the influence of geography and biology, the role of mental deficiency, endocrinology, and socio-economic causes
- An analysis of punishment as philosophy of treatment, and a frank appraisal of the modern prison showing its failure as a deterrent to crime

Send for your examination copies today

PRENTICE-HALL, INC., 70 FIFTH AVENUE
NEW YORK 11, N. Y.

E
C
e
n
i-
e

d
d
e
p

Y
S
as
a
ch
le
g

nd
al-

hy
nd

nk
nt